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No. 2164: November 15, 1921

The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin

Volume X, Number 1

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The benefits of education and of useful knowledge, generally diffused through a community, are essential to the preservation of a free government.

Sam Houston

Cultivated mind is the guardian genius of democracy. . . . It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge and the only security that freemen desire.

Mirabeau B. Lamar

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The Texas History Teachers' Bulletin is issued in November, February, and May. The history teachers of Texas are urged to use it as the medium of expression for their experience and ideals and to help make it as practicable and useful as possible by contributing articles, suggestions, criticisms, questions, personal items, and local news concerning educational matters in general. Copies will be sent free on application to any history teacher in Texas.

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SOME IMPERATIVE NEEDS FOR THE STUDY OF HISPANIC AMERICAN HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES[1]

South of the United States of America, extending from the Straits of Florida and the Rio Grande on the north to Cape Horn in the south, lie the twenty republics of Hispanic America. Of these republics, eighteen owe their existence directly and solely to Spain, and in them the Spanish language, the religion of Spain, and Spanish institutions are firmly planted; in minor points they vary slightly but there is in general a marked uniformity among them. Another of these twenty republics, Brazil, the largest—larger even than the United States—and the most populous—containing as it does more than one-fourth the total population of all of Hispanic America—springs from a small corner of a small region of southwestern Europe and owns Portugal as the mother country. Still another of these republics, Haiti, has been influenced in its historical development by both France and Spain, but principally by the former; French is the language of the country, and, generally speaking, the institutions are French. In no instance does the national existence of any of these republics antedate the year 1810, while the last quarter of a century has seen the birth of two new ones, Cuba and Panamá.

The combined area of these various republics is slightly over 8,000,000 square miles, and living in this vast area are approximately 83,800,000 people. Of this number only about 30,000,000, or 35 per cent, are of pure, or nearly pure, European extraction; the other 65 per cent is composed of native Indians, half-breeds, negroes, mulattoes, and a small sprinkling of non-European foreigners. It is not to be understood, however, that this ratio of Europeans to non-Europeans holds fast for any individual country. Argentine, Uruguay, and Costa Rica contain almost pure Euro-

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[1]Read before the History Teachers' Section of the Texas State Teachers' Association at Dallas, Texas, November 25, 1921.

pean populations, while in Mexico, Colombia, and Venezuela only about 10 per cent of the people are of pure European extraction.

Of these twenty republics of Hispanic America, some, of their own initiative, may never progress very far beyond the stage to which they have already attained; others as Argentine, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, Mexico, and Cuba have already acquired new importance in the eyes of the world. But aside from individual countries, the Hispanic American republics, taken collectively, or in groups—as Argentine, Brazil, and Chile, which form the famous A. B. C. confederation—have most certainly assumed a very important position in the world today which gives promise of a much greater importance in the years to come. If for no other reason, so great an area and so thinly populated, where such vast natural resources, of which other nations are in need, can be found comparatively untouched, is sure to exercise some day a strong balance of power. The last generation witnessed the rise of the United States of America to the highest pinnacle of power and influence; it is no wild stretch of the imagination to point out the possibility of a corresponding development of Hispanic America in the next few generations.

So much for Hispanic America in general and for its potential possibilities. It is the purpose of this paper, however, to show, in the first place, the relation between the historical development of Hispanic America and the expansion and development of European civilization in general, and, in the second place, to explain the particular interest and connection between certain important but often over-looked facts in Hispanic American history and other better known ones in the historical development of the United States of America. In short it is proposed to point out and explain certain of the neglected facts in the historical evolution of Hispanic America that make imperative the study of its history in our schools and colleges if a broad rather than a narrow view is to be taken of the expansion and development of western, or European culture, and if the international rather than the provincial view is to be taken

with regard to the history of our present United States.

Colonial American history, used in its broad sense, can only be properly understood by regarding America as a projection of Europe and by studying its history as a part of the expansion of European peoples. When studied in this way the achievements of the Spaniards, the French, and the English in America come no longer to be regarded as detached or isolated movements. In other words, when so studied, it is clearly seen that the advance of the Spaniards from Panamá and Mexico City, to and beyond the Rio Grande; the movement of the French down the St. Lawrence to and around the Great Lakes into the Mississippi Valley; and the expansion of the English from the tidewater and piedmont regions of the Atlantic seaboard to and beyond the Alleghanies were but closely related movements in the great international struggle that was waged at the expense of France and Spain for seven-eights of the present United States.

It is not from this viewpoint, however, that the history of America has usually been presented; certainly it has not been so presented by writers of United States history—more commonly but improperly and presumptiously called American history. Too often, in fact almost unanimously, the thesis of so-called American historians has been that of the westward advance of the English from the Atlantic seaboard, without anything like proportionate importance being given to the French and with virtually no attention being paid to the Spaniards. As regards the latter they have seen only the dramatic and the spectacular side of the establishment of Spain in America and only a part of that. The achievements of Columbus, of Cortés until the fall of Mexico City in 1521, and the spectacular expeditions of Cabeza de Vaca, Coronado, and De Soto within the present limits of the United States are usually related with varying degree of detail. But here the story of Spain in America usually ends, and, strange to say, right at the point where the history of Spain in the United States really begins.

Now, if a logical perspective of the historical development of America in general, and of that of the United States in

particular, is to be attained, it must be held in mind that Spain had been establishing settlements and had been extending her dominion in America for 115 years prior to the founding of the first permanent French settlement in America and for 116 years prior to the founding of Jamestown. Up to the point then where France and England begin to compete with Spain for overseas dominion, the history of Spain in America can, in fact, must be, treated as a separate movement, or really as American history in its broad sense. Therefore, let it be held in mind what Spain had accomplished by that time; in other words, what were the advantages which Spain had secured at the time that the French and the English established rival colonies in America. During this more than a century Spain had not been idle. Not to mention the Portuguese occupation and settlement of Brazil, it may summarily be said that Spanish dominion had been permanently and almost completely established within the present nine Spanish American republics of South America. It had been completely and definitely established in Central America and in the larger of the West Indies. Moreover, New Spain, or Mexico, since the fall of Mexico City in 1521—which event properly marks the beginning rather than the end of the Spanish conquest—had expanded steadily to the north by three main lines of approach, namely, the west coast, the central plateau, and the east coast, until between the years 1565 and 1572 Spanish Florida, and between the years 1598 and 1609 Spanish New Mexico, had been established.

The history of Spain in America, then, from 1492 until 1609 is that of the expansion of certain European peoples (Spaniards to be sure but Europeans just the same) in the region extending from Buenos Aires and Santiago de Chile on the south to Santa Fé and St. Augustine on the north—a record for the establishment of empire and dominion that has not an equal in the history of the world and therefore deserving of full treatment in the narrative of the development and spread of western civilization in general.

But aside from the general cultural interest and importance of this movement, the history of Spain within the present limits of the United States up to the year 1609 is that of

the permanent establishment of Europeans in the first two of the present forty-eight states of the United States—the first, Florida, forty-two years, and the second, New Mexico, nine years before the founding of Jamestown. Nor was this all that Spain had done. After establishing St. Augustine with 1500 Europeans in 1565, Menéndez de Avilés extended the frontier of settlement to the north until either Spanish missions, or garrisons, or both, were established on the Georgia and the South Carolina coasts; in northern Alabama; in western North Carolina near the present site of Asheville; and even on the Rappahannock River in present Virginia in 1571, or thirty-six years before the English arrived there. Moreover, Juan de Oñate, the founder of New Mexico, after establishing his 130 colonists with their families and over 7000 head of livestock in the upper Rio Grande Valley, just south of the present southern boundary of Colorado, reexplored the country formerly discovered by Coronado—this latter discovery being the one which was made just fifty-eight years earlier and the one with which Channing in his monumental *History of the United States* brings to a close the story of Spanish achievements in the United States.

In view of the above facts, then, is not the history of Hispanic America to 1609 more than the expansion of European peoples in America? Is it not as much a part of the story of the exploration and establishment of permanent European settlement within the United States as is the story of the English colonies in Virginia and New England, or that of the Dutch in New York, or that of the Dutch and the Swedes on the Delaware, all of which were established a number of years later? And this being true, does not the history of the United States logically and chronologically begin with the founding of Spanish Florida and New Mexico rather than with the establishment of English Virginia? And this also being true how is the proper viewpoint of the history of the United States to be attained if the Hispanic American movement which actually founded our first two states is not taught in our schools and colleges? Certainly this viewpoint can never be attained by depending on texts, which, like

that of Channing's, narrate almost solely the story of the English advance to the west and stop their discussion of the Spanish movement at the point where it really begins. In truth, such a movement as the Hispanic American movement within the present United States is just as important. and, from the standpoint of later developments, more important, than the story of the French advance from the St. Lawrence, to and around the Great Lakes and into the Illinois country and the Mississippi Valley.

However, if the Spanish occupation of Florida and New Mexico, prior to the permanent coming of the English and French, really marked the end of Hispanic American history, looked at either from the viewpoint of America in general or that of the United States in particular, there would probably be no justification for such a conclusion. It is, however, after 1609 that the significance of Hispanic American history, certainly from the international standpoint and from that of the history of the United States, really begins. In South America and in Central America, after the establishment of Spanish dominion, which was practically complete there before 1600, there never was any real serious menace to the Spaniards from a foreign aggressor, and there is in those parts nothing that particularly interests us until the struggle for independence in the early nineteenth century, other than the consolidation of dominion and the establishment of institutions. In North America the story is a different one. With the establishment of Jamestown and Quebec there were introduced on the stage of American history, on which up to that time Spain had really been the only actor, the French and English actors in one of the greatest international dramas of all time, and one that was staged right here in our own Texas and in the great Trans-Mississippi West, the first act of which ended with any one of the following significant events: the failure and death of La Salle in Texas, 1687; or the glorious revolution in England and the political readjustments in both Europe and America that were incident thereto, 1688-89; or the Spanish occupation of East Texas as a buffer colony against the French, 1690.

During the period from 1609 until anyone of the above dates, the real international rivalries of Spain, France, and England were only beginning to take shape. During these years the English, as is well known, were occupying the tide-water region and were just beginning to occupy the piedmont region, which, as Turner so ably shows, was the second step in the Anglo-American westward advance. At the same time the French extended their frontier of settlement down the St. Lawrence and around the Great Lakes into the Illinois country, explored the Mississippi River to its mouth, and, under La Salle, founded a temporary settlement on the Texas coast. The story of the French achievements during these years is also well known; Parkman has immortalized it and the outlines of it are to be found in almost every text-book of United States and even European history. But what were the Spaniards, who were the first to establish themselves in this region doing? Strangely, so-called American and United States histories are silent as regards the action of the third actor in the great international drama that was just beginning. In fact only one text-book of American history (Bolton and Marshall, *Colonization of North America,* New York, 1920) contains an outline of the activities of the Spaniards within the present limits of the United States between the years 1609 and 1690.

But Spain had not been idle during these years. Securely established in the upper Rio Grande Valley in New Mexico the Spaniards there entered into trade relations with the Indians to the north as far as Kansas and Nebraska. To the west Spanish dominion and Spanish institutions were definitely established as far as the Hopi country of northeastern Arizona. A southward movement from New Mexico met a northward movement from present Chihuahua resulting in the permanent establishment of Paso del Norte, or modern El Paso, in the year 1659; and from that year El Paso became one of the most important places on the entire northern frontier, as it is today on the international boundary between Mexico and the United States. Finally, by the middle of the seventeenth century, interest of the Spaniards in New Mexico was aroused in the San Angelo, Texas, region due

to the discovery of pearls on the Concho (shell) River and the development of the fur trade in that region. From Santa Fé annual expeditions were made to the Concho River, also called the Nueces (from the number of nuts found there) from 1650 until 1680, during which time reports were heard of the "great kingdom of the Tejas," further east; the result was, a new Eldorado appeared on the eastern horizon. And, far fetched as it may seem, the Spanish viceroy at Mexico City in 1684 was considering the establishment of a pearl fishery and a presidio in the San Angelo region when news of the founding of La Salle's settlement on the Texas coast in that year diverted the viceroy's interest from the gradual expansion of New Mexico into West Texas to the danger point on the Gulf Coast, now menaced by the foreign aggressor. As a result the expedition that was sent out to reconnoitre the French and destroy their settlement was organized in the newly created province of Coahuila, just below the Rio Grande. And, after the abandoned French fort was found and destroyed, it was from Coahuila that came the Spanish missionaries and civilians who established the first Spanish settlement in East Texas as a buffer to the French. What Texan, at least, is there who can say that this movement is not just as much a part of United States history as the founding of the temporary French posts of Fort Crevecour and Fort St. Louis in the Illinois country? But, while it is a part of United States history, it must not be forgotten that it is even more a part of Hispanic American history; most of all it is a part of the three-sided international contest that was shaping itself for the control of the Mississippi Valley.

If the period from 1609 until 1690 constitutes the first act in this struggle, the period from 1690 to 1763 constitutes the second act, which may be characterized as one of *intense* rivalry between the three contending actors. And yet it has been the rule of historians of the United States to relate only the activities of two of these actors—the French and the English. Parkman is largely responsible for this; in his incomparable way he has told the story of *A Half Century of Conflict,* or the story of the French and English wars

from 1713 until the elimination of the French in 1763. But Parkman did not know, or did not note, that there was "another half century of conflict" that was being waged at the same time between the Spaniards and French along a rough line extending from the Gulf coast by way of the Red River to the plains of Nebraska.

This necessitates a word about the Spanish achievements within the present United States between the years 1690 and 1763. Established in 1690, the East Texas missions were abandoned in 1693; at the same time interest was transferred to the Pensacola region where a presidio was established in 1698. The reasons for all this were that the French were not as menacing to East Texas as had been anticipated, while the English from South Carolina were beginning to gain the confidence of the Creeks, Choctaws, Cherokees and other tribes in northern Alabama and Georgia, and all this seriously threatened Spain's hold in the Florida and east Gulf Coast region. Then in 1699 when French Louisiana was established with its capital first at Biloxi, and later at Mobile, just a few miles west of the Spanish garrison at Pensacola, a veritable wedge was thereby driven between the Spanish provinces of Florida on the one side, and New Mexico, Nueva Vizcaya, and Coahuila on the other. In view of the renewed French encroachments in Louisiana, particularly the founding of the French outpost of Natchitoches on the Red River and the commercial schemes of its founder, St. Denis, East Texas was reoccupied by the Spaniads in 1716 with six missions, a garrison, and settlers, and in 1721 a second garrison was established at Los Adaes, just 15 miles from Natchitoches. At the same time Los Adaes became the capital of Spanish Texas and remained such—located as it was in the present state of Louisiana—for fifty years, or until after the French were driven from the continent and Spain had fallen heir to Western Louisiana, which carried her frontier to the Mississippi River.

Thus the French and Spanish frontiers approached each other in the Pensacola-Mobile region and in the Los Adeas-Nachitoches region, with the result that in each there was constant friction. But these were not the only regions in

which the "other fifty years of conflict" raged. From New Mexico the establishment of a Spanish settlement in present Scott County, Kansas, and a garrison on the North Platte in Nebraska, or Wyoming, had been authorized by 1720. But the annihilation of a force of 110 Spaniards from New Mexico and a large number of Indian allies on the South Platte in that year by Indians under French influence from as far east as the Great Lakes put an end to Spanish expansion in that field. However, as far as New Mexico and its frontier were concerned, from that time until the final withdrawal of the French from the continent in 1763, the story is one of the gradual encroachments of the French from the Illinois and Lower Louisiana regions, up the Red, the Arkansas, the Osage, and the Platte rivers toward New Mexico, and the efforts on the part of the Spaniards to counteract the growing French influence among the neighboring Indian tribes and to put a stop to illicit trade between the French of Louisiana and the Spaniards at Santa Fé.

In addition to this "other fifty years of conflict," which all scientific historians will agree should be studied in the light of the Spanish as well as the French historical development in America, Spain continued in this period to consolidate and expand her territorial possessions. With East Texas established again in 1716, a half-way station was needed, and the founding of San Antonio supplied this need in 1718. It soon rose above the importance of a half-way station, however, for it became the base for holding back the Apaches, and the base from which new mission centers were opened up at Rockdale, at San Saba, on the Nueces, at the mouth of the Trinity, and in the Corpus Christi region. At the same time new presidios and civil settlements were established at a number of these new centers and entirely new areas were colonized for the first time by Europeans, particularly the region along the Rio Grande from Laredo to the Brownsville region.

Further west Spanish dominion was at the same time, extended from modern Sonora to the Gila River in Arizona, and today in that desert region, just nine miles south of Tucson, Arizona, there stands the most beautiful Spanish

mission in all of North America—San Javier del Bac—as a monument to Father Kino who founded it in the early eighteenth century.

So much for Spain's part in the period from 1690 to 1763. The fact that the French were eliminated from the great international struggle in 1763, however, did not mean that that struggle was over as far as the Spaniards and the English were concerned, for their frontiers now met at the Mississippi, besides extending, after 1783, in a practically straight line from St. Augustine west to New Orleans. Instead, in order to keep the English from crossing over the Mississippi, Spain was forced, though very reluctantly—because of her misgivings of the English—to occupy Western Louisiana, to which she had fallen heir by the treaty of 1763. At the same time in order to anticipate the Russians and the Hudson's Bay Company's traders in that region, it was necessary for Spain to occupy Alta California in 1769. Thus it was that between the years 1763 and 1800 Spain in the Americas made her greatest single advance when her frontier was extended north from Lower California and southern Arizona to San Francisco, and from East Texas and Santa Fé, New Mexico, to St. Louis and the Des Moines, Iowa, region, where Spain's northernmost outpost was established. Nor was this all. From New Mexico the territory between there and the settlements in California was thoroughly explored even as far north as Great Salt Lake and the Yellowstone region—the Spaniards going from St. Louis up the Missouri just twelve years before the more famous Lewis and Clark expedition over the same route. Between New Mexico and St. Louis the real Santa Fé trail was at the same time opened up. Yet of the establishment and expansion of Spanish dominion in the great Trans-Mississippi West, Channing does not say one word in his *History of the United States,* and other historians of the United States have maintained equal silence. However, since the territory west and south of a line drawn from St. Augustine to New Orleans, and from New Orleans to St. Louis and thence across to San Francisco is a part of the United States of America, the establishment and the development

of Spanish dominion therein is as much a part of the history of the United States as it is a part of the expansion of European civilization in the region known as Hispanic America, and for both reasons should be taught and studied in our schools.

From 1763 until the Gadsden's purchase in 1853, the Hispanic American frontier was being pushed back by the Anglo-Americans. The bowing of Spain to English will in the Nootka Sound controversy in 1790, and the retrocession of Western Louisiana to Napoleon and his sale of it to the United States in 1803, constitute the first two backard steps of Spain in the Americas; from the founding of Darien on the Isthmus of Panama in 1510 the Spanish advance to the north had been steady and continuous, first into central and then northern Mexico and from there into Florida, New Mexico, Texas, Arizona, California, and Louisiana. But with the first backward steps of the Spaniards taken in 1790 and 1800, others soon followed, such as the loss of West Florida, due to its occupation and annexation by the United States in 1810; the cession of East Florida to the United States in 1819; the humiliating cessions provided for in the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848, and the even more humiliating "sale" of La Mesilla, better known as the Gadsden's Purchase, in 1853.

However, the imperative needs for the study and teaching of Hispanic American history do not all arise in connection with the history of the Spanish colonial regimé or with the beating back of the Spanish by the Anglo-American frontier; instead other and equally important needs for the study of this neglected field of history are to be found when other world movements, and movements vitally concerning the present United States, are properly treated. For example, when, in the future, the proper historical perspective has been given to world events since 1776, the outstanding movement of that restless century and a half doubtless will be known as the triumph of virile democracy and republican institutions over entrenched and monarchial autocracy. Looked at in this way and studied with proportionate emphasis, it is even now clearly seen that the revolt of the

English colonies in 1776; the French and Polish revolutions of a few years later; the Spanish American revolutions of 1810-1826 against the Bourbon Ferdinand VII and his supporting allies of the reactionary Holy Alliance; the various revolutionary movements for democracy and self-government in Europe in the nineteenth century; and, finally, the making of the world safe for democracy in the last great war, are all but closely related phases of the general movement initiated at Philadelphia on July 4, 1776.

Then, if this great world movement is to be considered from all angles, as it should be by scientific historians—if it is to be properly understood and properly presented—are we to be content to tell only of Vallege Forge and Yorktown, of the gory days of the revolutionary tribunal and the guillotine in France, and of freedom shrieking when Kosciusko fell at the time of the partition of his beloved Poland, and ignore or forget to tell of the incomparable patriotism and self-denial of San Martín in Argentine and on the west coast of South America; of the military and political ambitions and triumphs of Bolívar, "El Libertador" of northern South America; and of the martyrdom of Hidalgo, Morelos, and a score of others on the altar of their beloved Mexico? No! Far be it. These men believed in and sacrificed for exactly the same principles as did Washington, La Fayette, and Kosciusko; they took up the work where the latter had left it off and carried it into far distant parts of the world. And, far from belittling the work of the latter, let it be remembered that the labors of San Martín and Bolívar, of Hidalgo, Morelos, and Guerrero freed from autocracy's strangling grasp and made safe republican institutions and virile, though not full-blown democracy, in an area many times the size of the total area freed by their better known and immortalized American and European predecessors in the same work. To be sure, as yet, not as many people have been effected by the achievements of the Hispanic American revolutionary patroits as were by those of Washington and La Fayette. But consider this! At the entrance of the United States into the great war just closed, when the clarion notes of President Wilson's appeal

to humanity and civilized nations was heard round the world, two-thirds of the total area of Hispanic America and three-fifths of its total population—a total of 50,000,000 souls—either followed the lead of the United States in declaring war against autocratic Germany or severed diplomatic relations with that country, while not one of the remaining Hispanic American peoples expressed friendship for Germany but instead maintained the strictest neutrality. From the standpoint of general culture alone, then, if for no other reason, are not the contributions of Hispanic America from 1810 to 1826 and again from 1917 to 1918 in the long struggle to drive autocracy from the face of the earth as worthy of consideration and of our study as are those contributions of other larger, more populous, and wealthier countries? Is it not time to stop considering Hispanic American movements as isolated, unimportant, and non-understandable and give them their proper setting and emphasis in the development of humanity in general?

Then again, if the revolutionary period of Hispanic American history is worth studying from the standpoint of world developments, as I have tried to show is the case, there is yet a more particular reason to us in the United States why this same movement should be studied here even more closely. When they declared their independence, at the outset of the revolutionary struggle, all of these new republics showed the greatest respect and admiration for the United States, proof of which is found in the fact that at first all but four of the new republics declared for a federal form of government modeled after that of the United States.[1] Not only that, but as the struggle progressed they looked to the United States for material and moral support. Here they knew that the idea of liberty had had its birth and that here freemen had successfully maintained their dearly purchased freedom. Accordingly they often sent, and especially was this true of Mexico, such men as Gutiérrez and Martínez to

[1]Today only four of the Hispanic American republics have a federal form of government; they are, Argentine, Brazil, Venezuela, and Mexico.

secure much needed aid in the United States. These men carried back not only soldiers but advanced liberal ideas and principles as well, and it was these principles which were reflected in the liberal acts of the newly established Mexican republic a few years later. In fact it was the triumph of these principles that prepared the way for the entry of Moses Austin into Texas, followed by warm invitations to his successors to follow him. From all of this there developed the well-known movement which, when later a shameless Santa Anna temporarily downed these liberal principles, gave the United States everything north of the present southern boundary. Search the pages of United States history as written with regard to the American movement into Texas, or the United States sources for the yet unwritten history of this movement, but the above conclusions will not be found there. They are only to be found in the letters, documents, and official archives of the patriotic and triumphant revolutionaries of early Mexico. From the standpoint of Texas in particular, and from that of the United States in general, then, is not the study of nineteenth century Mexico worth our while for this reason alone?

Finally, in the national period of the various Hispanic American republics there are to be noted numerous outstanding incidents and movements, which, in themselves, or because of their connection and significance with United States, or world affairs, are worthy of our earnest consideration and study, and, in most cases, of our admiration. This is not the time to enter into a discussion of these various events and movements; such would indeed constitute in brief the nineteenth century history of the twenty Hispanic American republics to the south of us. However, a few of them may be mentioned in passing, as: the long and desperate and finally victorious struggle, against French soldiery and an Austrian Arch-duke, of Mexico's incomparable patriot, Benito Juárez, in defense, so far as Mexico alone was concerned, of exactly those principles laid down in what we know as the Monroe Doctrine; of the pioneer and never-dying work in education of Sarmiento, Argentine's schoolmaster president; of the gradual and bloodless transition of

Brazil from a monarchy to a republic just thirty-two years ago, and, in that same country a few years later of the achievements in international arbitration of Brazil's grand old man, Rio Branco—achievements which so far as permanent results are concerned put to shame the accomplishments of our own William Jennings Bryan in that same work; of the nineteenth century colonial policy of Spain in the West Indies which led to the Spanish American war of 1898 and the freeing of Cuba and the annexation of Porto Rico by the United States; of the promulgation of the "Drago Doctrine" by Venezuela's great statesman, the principle of which, namely, that force should never be resorted to by nations to collect debts of their nationals, was accepted by the Hague Tribunal; of the events leading to the creation within the last few months of the newest of nations, the Central American Confederation; of the Tacna-Arica dispute between Bolivia, Peru, and Chile, which is really the Alsace-Lorraine question of South America, and which has been submitted to the League of Nations for its consideration—the first international problem outside of events connected with the great war to be submitted to that body; and, finally, of the movement within the last few decades in Mexico for a more representative and democratic form of government, which movement culminated in the great revolution of 1910 to 1920 in our neighboring country just below the Rio Grande.

So much for facts connected with the historical evoultion of Hispanic America in the colonial, the revolutionary, and the national periods that are worthy of being taught in our schools and colleges. In conclusion let me leave this thought with you for your earnest consideration. The present international boundary between the United States and Mexico is more than a political boundary between the two countries in question; it is the line which separates Hispanic American culture—extending, on the one hand, to the Straits of Magellan—and the Anglo-American civilization—extending, on the other hand, to Alaska and Labrador. And with respect to this line Texas by virtue of its geographic position occupies a most important and responsible location. For Mexico,

in large measure, regards the attitude of Texas as that of the United States at large, and the United States at large, in a very great measure, bases its opinion of Mexico upon that held by Texas on the same subject. And Hispanic America in general is very greatly influenced in its opinion of the United States by our relations with Mexico. Such being true does it not behoove us, especially as Texans, to learn more about our neighbors, their historical development, and their institutions? This will not only be worth while from a cultural standpoint, but it will help to initiate a new era of cordiality and friendship between two great peoples who for so long a time have misunderstood each other, and may foreshadow the organization of a real, workable, concert of nations in the western hemisphere.

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TEACHING EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY—A GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE FIELD FOR TEACHING PURPOSES

Unless a high-school history teacher expects to follow the adopted text chapter by chapter and page by page, he will need to know pretty well in advance of the opening day of the course the general organization of the field which he expects to use. If this general organization is one based on topics, the use that the teacher makes of the adopted text will differ widely from the way it is utilized in the page by page textbook organization. While the topical organization has many virtues it does not seem to be the most desirable one for history teachers with inadequate library facilities to use. Inasmuch as these teachers are unfortunately in the majority, it becomes necessary to find a teaching organization which can be adapted to classes with few or no books other than the text they use.

To date, there is no text in the field of Early European History which has a general organization that meets teaching conditions as they actually exist in the majority of our high schools. This statement should not be taken as an adverse criticism of the existing texts in this field, some of which contain a general organization of the field and some of which do not. Furthermore, a text-book organization of a field of history might be a good one for the purpose the author has in mind and not be one that a teacher could use most effectively.

The general organization contemplated in this discussion, as the writer has elsewhere pointed out,[1] includes three things: the name and the date boundary of the main divisions of the field, the percentage of time to be allotted to each of these divisions, as well as the three to six main topics to be studied in each. Let us consider each of these in its application to the field of Early European History (Earliest Times to 1648).

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[1]Tryon, "The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools," p. 217.

The name, number, and date boundary of the main division of the field are phases on which a teacher can profitably spend a good deal of time. The name of a division should suggest its outstanding characteristics. In other words, the name of a division must tell what is to be emphasized in teaching it. The names of the various divisions must also be coordinate both in form and in content. This type of coordination will necessitate, of course, that the main divisions themselves be coordinate one with the other. In other words, one division could not be named "The Middle Ages" and another one "Medieval Civilization," because the period of history suggested in these names is identical in scope rather than coordinate. Indeed, one could combine them into one division, naming it "Civilization during the Middle Ages."

The number and date boundary of the large divisions are closely related to the name. If a division is properly named, its length is at the same time approximately fixed. This fact is illustrated above in the name "Civilization During the Middle Ages." If one decides to use this name for the period commonly known as the Middle Ages, one has at the same time settled the matter of approximate date boundaries.

Ideally the number of divisions would be determined by the significant developments that took place during the time covered by the entire course. However, exigencies of administration and method of procedure sometimes determine this matter for the teacher. For example, the writer knows of a school in which the number of large units of work is determined by the method of procedure used in teaching the subject. In this school it has been found by experience that the right number of big units for a year's work is eight or nine. However, where the number of divisions is not determined by something over which the history teacher has no control, there are certain important considerations to be faced before the matter can be settled. In the first place, the content of these divisions should stand out pretty clearly in the mind of each pupil on completing the course. They are to be thought of as the frame work of an historical structure built during the year by each member of the class. Thought of in this way, there is, of course, a grave danger of

handicapping the student with a large number of topics. On the other hand, if the name is to be the key that unlocks for the student the historical mysteries of the period, the number of periods should not be too small because of the perplexities one would encounter in finding names sufficiently specific to be of any service to the learner.

Another consideration that must be confronted in deciding upon the number of main divisions is the subsequent teaching use one is to make of them. If the general organization contemplated here is well done, it at once becomes the foundation stone on which all the course is built. Chronology is kept straight through it, historical personages are located in time by it, the maps worth making are based on it, and the general "overview" of the whole field is simply an elaboration of it. In view of these important truths, the number of general divisions of a course in high-school history become a matter of first importance both to the teacher and to the pupil.

Organizing each main division of a couse in Early European history is similar to organizing the entire field. In doing this, one must go over the field included in each main division and decide definitely upon the features to be taught and emphasized. It is also necessary in this connection to settle the matter of an appropriate name for each sub-topic in each main division. The number of these sub-topics to be included in each case will also have to be determined before one makes much progress in this phase of the work. Inasmuch as these sub-topics are to be used by the student as historical guide posts on his journey through the period, the number should not be large enough to overcrowd the space allotted for said journey.

The percentage of time to be given to each main division should be known by the teacher before he meets his class the first day. The importance of knowing this fact can not be overemphasized, if the course is to have any semblance of proportion. Furthermore, when one knows on beginning a certain division just how many recitation periods are to be devoted to it, there will be in the teaching of the period a

definiteness and a drive which are too often lacking when this fact is not known except in a very general way.

With these considerations out of our way, let us now turn to a proposed general organization of the field of Early European history for teaching purposes, which purports to apply all of the fundamentals of a general organization discussed above. The following will illustrate what is meant by four of these fundamentals:

EARLY EUROPEAN HISTORY

Name and Date Boundary of Each Large Division	Percentage of total time given
I. Primitive Man and the Oriental World?—500 B. C.	7
II. Ancient Greece and Her Civilization?—146 B. C.	18
III. Rome and the Roman World?—395 A. D.	19
IV. The Barbarian Migrations and the Break-up of the Roman Empire—395–768 A. D.	6
V. The Empire of Charlemagne and the Invasion of the Northmen—768–1066	5
VI. Medieval Civilization and the Rise of Modern States—900–1350	22
VII. The Renaissance and the Age of Discovery and Invention—1350–1520	10
VIII. The Religious Reformation and the Protestant Revolution—1520–1648	13

It will be observed that there are eight main divisions in the general organization proposed above, four for each semester's work. However, if one wishes to place more emphasis on Ancient history than an even division of the eight periods affords, one could devote the first semester to the first three divisions; or, if one desires to throw the chief emphasis of the year's work on the period since 1066, one could finish the first five divisions during the first semester and devote all of the second semester to the last three. To do this it would only be necessary to readjust the percentage of time to be devoted to each division.

An elaborate justification of the names given to the divisions does not seem necessary since the names themselves are in reality their own justification. The main things to be

said for the names employed are (1) they suggest in each case the paramount features of the chronological division over which they extend; (2) they are coordinate both in form and content; and (3) they are brief enough to make it possible to remember them without difficulty. Using them as guide posts, the teacher ought to be able to conduct his pupils through the long historical road from earliest time to the end of the Thirty Years' War with a good deal of ease and certainty.

While the name of each large division suggests in a large way what is to be taught therein, it can not do all that must be done before a general organization is complete. Before such an organization is ready for service, the units to be studied in each large division must be deliberately selected and carefully named. To illustrate exactly what this selecting and naming involves, the following is submitted:

The General Organization for Teaching Purposes of Each Main Division in the Field of Early European History

I. Primitive Man and the Oriental World.
   - A. Prehistoric life and its contributions to modern times.
   - B. The civilization of Ancient Egypt.
   - C. Ancient empires and the civilization of Western Asia.
   - D. Contributions of the Oriental World to modern times.

II. Ancient Greece and Her Civilization, ?—146 B. C.
   - A. The Aegean and the Homeric Ages.
   - B. The conflict of the East and the West.
   - C. The Athenian Empire at its height.
   - D. Spartan and Theban supremacies.
   - E. The mingling of the East and the West—Alexander.
   - F. Contributions of Ancient Greece to modern times.

III. Rome and the Roman World, ?—395 A. D.
- A. The expansion of Rome in Italy.
- B. The conquest of the Mediterranean World, 264—133 B. C.
- C. Internal strife and revolution, 133–31 B. C.
- D. The Roman Empire at its height.
- E. The rise and spread of Christianity to 395 A. D.
- F. Summary of classical civilization.

IV. The Barbarian Migration and the Break-up of the Roman Empire, 395–768 A. D.
- A. The migrations and the kingdoms of the barbarians.
- B. The fall of the Empire in the West.
- C. Merging of Roman and Teuton.
- D. Summary of conditions in the Western and in the Eastern Empires, 395–768 A. D.

V. The Empire of Charlemagne and the Invasions of the Northmen, 768–1066.
- A. Charlemagne and his empire.
- B. The Northmen and the Normans.
- C. The break-up of the Frank Empire.
- D. Anglo-Saxon England.

VI. Medieval Civilization and the Rise of Modern States, 900–1350.
- A. Feudalism and feudal society.
- B. The Medieval Church and its struggle for power.
- C. Growth of the Moslem power and the Crusades.
- D. Rise of towns and the growth of commerce and industry.
- E. Village and rural life in the Middle Age.
- G. The formation of national states.

VII. The Renaissance and the Age of Discovery and Invention, 1350–1520.
- A. Antecedents of and preparation for the Renaissance.

B. The Italian Renaissance.
C. The Renaissance outside of Italy.
D. Early explorations and discoveries.
E. Epoch-making inventions.

VIII. The Religious Reformation and the Protestant Revolution, 1520-1648.
A. Martin Luther and the Protestant revolt.
B. The course of the Reformation on the continent.
C. The Counter-Reformation.
D. The English Reformation and the Puritan Revolution.
E. The Thirty Years' War.

Before outlining the several units in each of the main divisions of this field, the teacher should distribute the time to be devoted to each large division among its several subtopics. This distribution will be controlled somewhat by the text in the hands of the pupils and the library facilities at the teacher's command. For this very reason, little specific assistance can be given to the teacher beyond the general outline submitted above. The day by day outline will of necessity be made by the teacher, because he alone knows all the things one must know in order to make a meritorious outline of this character. Some of these things include the size and the ability of the class, the textbook in use, the library facilities and the laboratory supplies. With a knowledge of all of these at his command the teacher will be able to set aside out of that given to a certain large division an exact amount of time to each unit in this division, and on the basis of this time he will be able to make, closely following the text in use, a teaching outline of each of these units. Not until he has done all of this is he ready to teach any one of the big divisions of the course with the pre-assurance of success that always comes with painstaking and thoughtful care in the matters of course and lesson planning.

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BOOK REVIEWS AND NOTES

By W. P. Webb

The Teaching of History by Eugene Lewis Hasluck, M.A., F. R. Hist. Soc., Cambridge University Press (Macmillan, American distributors). Pp. 119.

The Teaching of History is the title of a new book by Eugene Lewis Hasluck. The book, by an English scholar, is written from an English point of view, and for England's history teachers. It contains much, however, that may be of interest and profit to American teachers. In the preface the author gives his purpose in writing the book.

> This volume is intended to provide the teacher with some information as to the direction in which improvements in methods have been suggested by various authorities, and to indicate the points where recent experiments have accomplished an acknowledge advance on previous practice.

The author has not attempted to provide an outline of procedure or a code of rules for teachers. He has presented a series of essays, for the most part readable enough, on history teaching as applied in England.

In the introduction, which fills one-fourth of the volume, the author considers the purpose of history, along with its true and false claims. He reaches the conclusion, which all must reach who give the matter thought, that history is justified because it acquaints the student with the origin and the evolution of the complex civilization in which he finds himself. History gives understanding, and incidentally culture. Having set up the just and sufficient claim of history, the author turns with philistic vehemence to the disposal of "some false and shallow 'justifications' of history teaching." In the following words he throws out a number of claims with vigor and finality:

> A school history-course does *not* provide a training in citizenship; it does *not* constitute a course of training in the study of human nature or applied psychology; and it does *not* make a suitable basis for ethical and moral instruction.

This is indeed a bold and courageous statement of what history can not claim to do. Mr. Hasluck would have us accept history as the wise cat with one good trick rather than as the sly fox with a hundred poor ones. He does not want history held up as a panacea for human and social ills. He believes it will make us intelligent but not good; it will make us philosophers but not crusaders.

Having discussed the claims of history, the author proceeds to the methods of teaching. The strong point of his book—his balanced judgment—is set forth as follows:

> There has, perhaps, no subject the methods of teaching which have given rise to more discussion during recent years. All varieties of methods are "in the air," and nobody yet has propounded a universally accepted system. While a great deal of this uncertainty has arisen from the inability to appreciate the initial facts of what history is really to be taught, another reason for confusion is that many of our well-known history teachers have devoted their attention, and with it their enthusiasm, to some particular section [the author evidently means section or method] of history, such as social science, source-work, or European history, and have turned their energies into a partial and sectional channel. The ordinary student and teacher will find that to adopt the attitude and policy of a "trimmer" and give due consideration to the claims of all sorts and conditions of historical methodologists will be, not a source of weakness, but the best possible security for a reasonable outlook on the subject.

This is a legitimate and sane observation on the tendency towards over-enthusiasm. The teacher must accept all methods that can be used to advantage, but he must use each with discriminating judgment. The danger which the author hints at above, he speaks of more specifically with reference to the popular source-problem method which has had so much vogue in America.

> It is evident that there is much to be done with this type of exercise. It will by no means, however, be considered advisable to adopt the extreme claims of the source-book enthusiasts. . . . Like many other special methods it can be followed up *ad nauseam*, and a class will make far more progress on a balanced syllabus than on one which is too heavily weighted in one particular direction.

There are sections of the book devoted to dramatised, local, general European, and recent history. These treaties are suggestive, but are too closely bound up with the particular needs of England to be of more than suggestive value to American teachers. More help may be found in the chapter on "History and Allied Studies." Geography, literature —prose and poetry—drawing, woodwork, and architecture all come in for consideration. With reference to libraries the author has said little that has not appeared in Keatinge's excellent work, or in that of Professor Johnson.

The last chapter is devoted to the pitfalls which beset the teacher's path. Here the author has risen entirely above his own country and written for teachers of history everywhere. Some of his observations are enumerated here at length.

1. The teacher should never lose sight of his main plan. (This suggestion compliments the teacher by assuming that he really *has a plan.*) He must not wander from his subject or be drawn from it by clever pupils.

2. He should not pile up facts with the idea of "filling out" the lesson. Nothing should be given that does not bear on the subject under consideration.

3. He should not moralize on events. The author excuses one kind of moralizing—that which encourages patriotism. He says England is not addicted to it as much as Germany and France. The best thought in America does not approve of this sort of history teaching, though it has been much practiced. Besides, in approving it, the author is not true to the high aim which he laid down in the first part of his book.

4. The teacher should be on guard against getting over the heads of his pupils. He must be careful to create the

atmosphere in which the event occurred. For example, he must prevent the pupil from drawing invidious comparisons between the mediaeval armies and the modern ones.

5. The teacher is warned against the economic-social interpretation of history. The cardinal fault, says the author, of this school of teachers is that they devote too much time to their own social and economic side of the subject. It is pointed out with convincing force that the social and economic activity of man is not filled with variety, but is characterized by repetition, monotony, and therefore, can not command the place in history that must be devoted to institutional and political life.

> The elementary forces of human nature [says the author] remain the same through all ages, and social and economic history deal largely with these elementary forces. . . . Food may differ from time to time, clothes and fashions may alter, sports and pastimes may change with the passing centuries, but their general characteristics remain the same, and it is not a matter of great importance whether the people dress in red or blue or black, in ruffs or starched collars, or whether they play nine men morris and clash or cricket and football and billiards. The general social condition of the people remains very much the same from age to age; it is only in times of extraordinary development, such as those of the Industrial Revolution, that the social condition undergoes a serious change. It will thus be found that the main outlines of social history can be written in comparatively few pages, or taught in comparatively few lessons. Not so the political outlines; the institutions under which the people are governed require greater explanation to those pupils who, while easily understanding social references, have no knowledge or experience of the working of political institutions; these institutions too change more rapidly than the social conditions on which they are primarily based. . . . For instance, no one would deny the real importance of the struggle between Crown and Parliament in the seventeenth century; but when we have sketched the social conditions of 1603 we have virtually also sketched those of 1625 and 1640 and 1660 and 1689.
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> We see then that it is possible to compress our social and economic history into a very much smaller compass

than we can our political history and thus, while granting the claim of the former to a prominent place in the syllabus, reason demands that political and constitutional subjects should command the greater part of the time at our disposal.

In taking this interesting stand, the author is thoroughly consistent with his statement of the real and just claim of history, namely, to give understanding of the origin and evolution of our civilization. We can understand why men sow and reap without going far behind the acts of reaping and sowing; but we can undestand the British Parliament or the republican form of govenment only in the light of their long history and development.

In conclusion the author points out some of the positive duties of the real teacher. He makes it clear that the teacher must do more than the daily task of preparing lessons and grading exercises.

> He must keep his eye on the educational papers, and seize upon any fresh ideas on history-teaching therein put forward. He has to read, in his own private time, a great deal of historical matter, to amplify and add to his knowledge. He ought to look out for reviews of new historical books in the columns of the Press. He should, if possible, join and attend the meetings of some such society as the Historical Association. In short it is only a specialist who can make a thoroughly good teacher of this subject. . . .
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> It used to be at one time a prevalent idea that history was one of the easiest of all subjects to teach. It was only necessary, it was thought, to get hold of a text-book and keep a page or two ahead of the class, and there was an end of it. But it ought to be apparent by this time that this is very far from the truth. History is perhaps the most difficult of all the subjects of the school curriculum to teach with effect. It requires a teacher who is willing to be ever active, ever enquiring, ever on his guard against the numerous pitfalls which beset his path.

Europe Since 1870 by Edward Raymond Turner, Professor of European History in the University of Michigan. Doubleday, Page & Co., 1921. Pp. XII-580.

Europe Since 1870 is the title of Professor E. R. Turner's latest history, published by Doubleday, Page & Company. This book is similar to his *Europe, 1789–1920* which was issued a few months ago. Professor Turner has written his new book around the "rise and fall" of the German Empire. He sets forth his purpose and procedure in the following words:

> The author has attempted an outline of the history of Europe in the last fifty years, an era which began with the victories of the Germans in 1870 and ended with the destruction of their empire. . . . The history of Europe during this half century was, indeed, the larger part of the history of all the world, for most of the world's population was controlled by European powers or else associated with them and directly affected by their fate.

There are many attractive features about the book some of which will be pointed out here. In the first place, the book is readable. It will not only appeal to the scholar, but it will appeal to the general reader, and will help him to *think through* the chaotic events of the last fifty years. This clarity has been achieved by a splendid senthisis of the important and a ruthless elimination of the non-essentials. I quote again from his preface: "If . . . he [the author] can be reproached with having left out a great many things, the answer must be that he has tried very hard to do this. In his own studies and reading he has never had any lasting impression from a mere collection of details." The author has fallen in line with a growing school of historians who seem to realize that it is not only necessary for them to write truth, but who must in addition write it well.

A second attractive feature of the book is the well chosen extracts, usually from a contemporary source, which the author places at the beginning of each chapter. Speaking

of this feature, he says: "He hopes that some of the quotations at the chapter heads may seem of more worth than ten times their space filled with data and statistics." We believe that the hope has been realized.

For example, under the chapter on "Colonies and Imperial Expansion" he has set Kipling's "Recessional"; under "The Great War" he has set a part of McCrae's "In Flanders Field." Under the Russian Revolution he has chosen the following from the decrees of the Soviet government of Russia:

> Russia is declared to be a Republic of Soviets of Workmen's, Soldiers' and Peasants' Deputies. All the power in the center and in the provinces belongs to these Soviets.
>
> . . . private ownership of land is abolished, and the whole land fund is declared common national property and transferred to the laborers without compensation. Inheritance, whether by law or by will, is abolished.

This quotation answers many of the questions one hears asked about Soviet Russia.

A third feature of the book is the thirty-six excellent maps, also remarkable for clearness, lack of infinite detail, and bold emphasis on the essentials. Finally, the volume is an example of excellent book-making, such as one may expect from the publishers, large clear type on dull paper, bound in deep blue buckram.

A possible criticism of the book is the fact that the author frequently anticipates future events. An example of this may be found on page 137 where he is discussing the defeat of France by Germany in 1870. In speaking of the helplessness of France after Sedan he says, "None the less she had not lost her courage. In 1918, when the German armies were tottering, but not yet completely beaten, Germany did not prolong the struggle, but drew back her soldiers and surrendered her ships without any further attempt. In 1870 it was not so with the French." Though this anticipation may be criticized, it can be argued in its favor that it certainly does sustain interest in the reader.

The Atlantic Monthly for October contains an article by Arthur Pound, entitled "The Iron Man." This article is an interpretation of the results of the Industrial Revolution, of the machine—the Iron Man, on America. The author points out that as the machines become more perfect and more automatic, the demands for skill and intelligence on the part of the operative becomes correspondingly less and less. "The rank and file need use only a fraction of their native intelligence and manual dexterity, while the skill-requirement, which formerly spread more or less over the whole shop, is distilled into a relatively small group of engineers and executives. This shift of vital function from the man to the machine is the key to many problems. It affects all departments of life. We have seen how it broke down the barrier of apprenticeship which had sealed factories more or less against rural labor and brought raw farm-boys into town, leveling farm and factory wages, lifting food prices. We have seen the power of the Iron Man to pull the negro north and the peasants of Europe west. And we have seen something, but not all as yet, of his influence in shifting women from the home to the mill."

Certain collateral effects of the automatic machine are now pointed out. First, the automatic machine can be operated as well by a child as by a man. In fact, the youth is more efficient because his nerves are steady and his muscles are supple. "Whereas, in the old days, a man used to come more slowly into earning power, reach his highest pay at thirty-odd, and continue fully competent until age began to slow him down at sixty-odd, his son leaps into high pay as a hobbledehoy, reaches his economic apogee short of twenty-five, and from thirty-five to forty-five slides swiftly down hill."

This economic and social change makes demands upon the educator which now begin to emerge. At an early age children begin to earn "big money," and they earn it without going through a long period of instruction. "It is estimated that 70 per cent of the workers in an automatized plant can be brought to efficient production in three days (of training) or less." They are free to go where they please.

with money and with leisure before age has taught them sobriety and self-control. They drift into bad company, go wrong, and fill the police courts of the great cities. The danger lies in the increased hours of leisure, and the author points out that those hours of leisure will increase as the machines are made more perfect; he almost predicts the seven or the six hour day.

If all this is true, then the duty of the educator is to train the youth to use his leisure. "Why waste time teaching city children how to work, when their chief need is to know how to live?"

"Precisely here is the point of my argument," he says. "Education for leisure, under the conditions of automatic production, is education for life. The attendant of automatic tools does not live while he is on the job; he exists, against the time when he can begin to live, which is when he leaves the shop. . . . He lives in his sports, at the movies, at the prize-fights, at the blind-pig, as well as at the theatre, the lecture, the library, the park, and on the front porch of his inamorata."

The duty of education then is to teach the individual thrift that he may save against the day when his earning capacity in automatized industry decreases, to teach him respect for law, to give him a mental pabulum to feed upon in his hours of leisure. Give him history, literature, science, art, music, —in short, give him culture, and help him to develop a hobby in order that he may not be bored to death by his own companionship. The duty of the educator and the specialist is to teach our youth "to use reasonably and gloriously the growing leisure which the common use of automatic machinery has in store for humanity." The article applies less to the agricultural south than to the industrialized north, though it will apply more and more to the south. It is an extreme statement of a condition which will never be completely realized, but it will give educators and vocationalists something to think about.

History and the Social Sciences, by Mrs. R. L. Ragsdale, is the title of a bulletin issued by the State Department of

Education at Austin, and is devoted to history, civics, and economics in the high schools of Texas. The three-fold purpose of the bulletin, as stated in the introduction, is (1) to promote Americanization, (2) to bring our instruction in social science in line with the best thought and practice of the day, and (3) to furnish a basis of work for students who plan to enter college or university by examination. The bulletin contains much of information of interest to history teachers, the Proposed Program of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, Suggested High School Course in History and the Social Studies for Texas Schools, and an outline or a course of study in economics. There is a chapter devoted to the teacher and the class recitation, and the several problems growing out of the recitation. The last chapter is devoted to bibliography and library lists. This bulletin should be particularly helpful because it has been prepared for the specific needs of Texas teachers.

THE PROFESSIONAL BOOK-SHELF

Many letters come to the *Bulletin* each year asking for aids in history teaching. The editor is always glad to render any service that will promote good teaching. It is probable, also, that many desire help without going so far as to write a letter asking it. It is in this belief that the following list of available helps has been prepared, and not in the belief that it is either complete or exhaustive.

In the first place every teacher desires to possess a professional library, a few books on methods of teaching which may be read and consulted in case of need. There are three such books which should be found on the book-shelf of every history teacher.

(1) *Teaching of History* by Professor Henry Johnson of Columbia University, Macmillan, 1915.

(2) *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools* by Professor Rolla M. Tryon of Chicago University, Ginn & Co., 1921.

() *Studies in the Teaching of History* by Professor M. W. Keatinge of Oxford, A. and C. Black, 1909.

Each of these books makes a different approach to the problem of history teaching; they are complimentary, not supplementary. However, if the teacher felt that he wanted only two, Tryon and Johnson should be chosen.

In addition to these books, the teacher would do well to read regularly *The Historica lOutlook*, McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia. Professor Albert E. McKinley of the history department of the University of Pennsylvania is editor. This is the only publication in America devoted to the interests of the history teachers, though the scope of the magazine has recently been enlarged to meet the interests of the general reader.

As to specific aids in the actual teaching of history, these will vary with the training of the teacher and the nature of his course. The most definite help for Texas teachers is to be found in two series of books put out by the Southern Publishing Company of Dallas at a nominal cost, as follows:

(1) *Victory Historical Map and Outline Books* by L. W. Newton of Denton Normal College.
(2) *The Crown Series of Historical Outlines* by Severe E. Frost of Fort Worth.

These outline and map books cover all the fields of history taught in the public schools of Texas, and are based upon texts which are, or have been, in use in Texas schools. For this reason they should prove of especial value to the inexperienced teacher.

Another help which may prove of value is "Illustrate Topics" in history, published by the McKinley Publishing Company of Philadelphia. It is not practical to give a complete description of these interesting topics, but their general plan may be indicated. For example, Topic S 26 in American history, deals with "Transportation in the United States to 1840." The treatment, which is typical, includes the following features: (1) Outline of Topic. This outline is of the guidance type and is simple, logical and comprehensive. (2) References, divided as to textbooks, collateral reading, sources, and bibliography. (3) Source Study which in this case is an extract from Charles Dicken's notes on his trip through the states. (4) Pictures, excellent ones, reproductions of a river raft, tow-boats, steamboats, stagecoaches, early locomotives, and quaint advertisements of early transportation facilities. This topic covers four pages and will furnish the teacher with enough material to make him independent and resourceful. Every topic contains features similar to those listed here, while some have maps in addition. All are printed on loose-leaf and may be bought singly or complete. The series is complete for American, ancient, mediaeval and modern history. Specimen topics will be sent to any teacher upon request.

All these publications, which are so essential to the good teacher, may be had for approximately ten dollars, a small price for a professional library.

Professor A. W. Birdwell, head of the history department at the State Normal College of San Marcos, will cease his duties as history teacher next year to take the presidency

of the new normal which is to be established at Nacogdoches. Professor Birdwell is well known throughout Texas, not only as a successful history teacher, but as a leading educator. He has been acting as dean at San Marcos for several years, which experience will enable him to handle the duties of presidency with assurance. Professor Birdwell is the third history teacher to be chosen for the presidency of the Texas colleges. The other two were Mr. Thomas Fletcher, elected president of the Normal at Alpine, who resigned to take charge of the Masonic Home at Fort Worth, and Mr. E. A. Hill, president of the Canyon Normal.

Mr. F. E. Norton, instructor in American and European history in the Forest Avenue High School at Dallas, spent the summer in Austin as a member of the history staff of the University of Texas.

Miss Eva Green of Forest Avenue High School and Miss Grace Simpson of Oak Cliff, Dallas, spent the summer studying in the University of Chicago.

Miss Bess Hackett of Oak Cliff High School was a member of the State Board of Examiners last summer.

HISTORY SECTION

TEXAS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

D. F. McCollum, East Texas State Normal College, Commerce, Chairman

Friday, November 25, 9:00 A. M.

Room 205-A, Bryan High School, Dallas

1. Some Fundamentals in the Teaching of Texas History—Principal J. G. Flowers, Cooper Public Schools.
2. Discussion—Miss Suzanne Davidson, Fort Worth Public Schools.
3. Announcement of Library Section—President R. B. Binnion, East Texas State Normal College, Commerce.

4. The Place of Hispanic-American History in Our Schools and Colleges—Professor Charles W. Hackett, University of Texas, Austin.
5. Discussion—President J. A. Hill, West Texas State Normal College, Canyon.
6. The Political Theories of Dante—Dean Robert G. Caldwell, Rice Institute, Houston.
7. Business.